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JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

Social Problems Through the Eyes of Youth

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APRIL 1941

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

One of the modern controversies in education is the extent to which young people should be given the opportunity to freely express their own opinions on local and national issues.

On the one hand are those who assert that youth lacks the experience essential for sound judgment, and that education should seek primarily to preserve in youth the attitudes and convictions of their elders. A few days ago a well-known educator discussing selective service said, "This year of discipline will be good for our American youth reared in an atmosphere of freedom and self-expression."

On the other hand there are many who, with equal earnestness, believe that only as youth learns to face modern problems realistically and to have the opportunity for forming judgments and expressing their convictions are they able to cope with the ever changing issues of American life.

It is true that youth lacks the breadth of knowledge and depth of experience essential for the riper judgments of more mature years. It is equally true, however, that youth is fired with a zealous idealism that may well be taken into account by those who guide the policies of our great nation.

Believing that this attitude of separatism which pervades both youth and age—youth feeling that its problems are theirs to solve,

and the "oldsters" believing that the problems of modern society rest wholly upon their own broader shoulders—may be partially bridged, *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* ventured the experiment of a national contest open only to high-school students. The topics were suggested by the Editorial Board under the general theme, "Social Problems Through the Eyes of Youth." The articles were limited to approximately fifteen hundred words.

Through coöperation with *Encyclopaedia Britannica, Incorporated*, a complete set of the *Britannica Junior* is presented to the library of the school in which the winner of the prize essay on each topic is enrolled. The officers of *Encyclopaedia Britannica, Incorporated*, and the Editorial Board are happy to announce the following first-prize winners: Spencer J. Dvorkin, Gay Follmer, Ernest R. Gray, Jr., Emma Russell Helms, and Paul Sipprell.

Those winning second place and whose articles also appear in this issue are Bernard Greenberg and Irving Pfefferblit.

The winning articles appear in this issue.

FRANCIS J. BROWN

OWNERSHIP OF JOURNAL TRANSFERRED TO
THE PAYNE EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY
FOUNDATION, INCORPORATED

With this issue, *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* is happy to announce the creation of The Payne Educational Sociology Foundation, Incorporated, to honor Dean E. George Payne. He not only founded and has continually guided the policies of *THE JOURNAL* but his life has been given to the development of educational sociology. To him, perhaps more than to any other man in America, can be attributed the signal honor of defining and identifying the field of educational sociology and of bringing it to its present position among the social sciences.

The ownership of THE JOURNAL is transferred from Rho Chapter, Phi Delta Kappa, to the Foundation, the membership of which is made up of all members of Rho Chapter in good standing, all members of the major faculty of the Department of Educational Sociology of New York University, and individuals elected to honorary membership.

The purposes of the Foundation are: to advance the knowledge and practice of the social aspects and implications of education; to conduct research and inquiries; to assist individuals or other agencies, either singly or in groups, to conduct research or inquiries by providing them with aid in the form of financial grants, scholarships, fellowships, prizes, collaboration, consultative advice, or moral support; to make the results of its own researches and inquiries, those in which it has assisted and those submitted to it for such purpose, available to individuals, corporations, associations, educational institutions, and any and all other groups of persons (a) by consultations; (b) by publication of reports, monographs, brochures, books, and the like; and (c) by publication of one or more periodicals, and specifically the magazine now known and published as THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY, under the corporate name of The Payne Educational Sociology Foundation, Incorporated.

The editorial policy of THE JOURNAL will continue unchanged as it is vested in a Special Committee, the membership of which is the same as the Board of Editors. THE JOURNAL will continue the policy of general numbers and special issues and will seek to retain the same high standard that has made it one of the leading national professional journals. Although, for the most part, the articles are prepared upon request, THE JOURNAL will continue to publish unsolicited articles of high merit and will welcome such from its readers.

The business office is the same, Room 51 in the Press Building, 32 Washington Place, New York, N. Y.

TIME OUT FOR YOUTH

(A simple story of the "teen age" as I see it)

PAUL SIPPRELL

George Bernard Shaw once mused that the only trouble with youth was that it had to be wasted on the young. And then there are those who believe that youth is not a time of life but a state of mind—that it is not necessarily characterized by rosy cheeks, red lips, and a lithe body; rather, it is the "pink champagne" in life, the beauty of imagination, the zest for adventure over love of ease, the fresh approach to everyday problems, and the passionate desire for truth and knowledge.

Youth is ageless. There are the young in heart and the young in fact. It is this latter group that interests me. They are the ones who sip "cokes" by the hour in Pete's corner drugstore, stream down the avenue in rickety "jalopies," drape themselves on overstuffed arm chairs for a brain workout with the "funnies," dress on the flashy side, cascade onto the dance floor like a troupe of trained animals, speak in a slangy individual style, and on the whole are a carefree, swingy, and fascinating lot.

But they do have their problems. First of all youth seeks fun. Some of them find it. A lot of them do not. Consciously or unconsciously they all have the same normal cravings. They wish to be socially accepted by others, possess a personal appearance that gives them a certain degree of confidence, find in themselves something that they can really do well and then reap the benefits, be able to take part in the social activities practised by those in their age group, find a place in the school of life that meets the standards of respect desired by that individual, and eventually establish themselves in a home of their own. For some of these values boys and girls will make tremendous sacrifices which, more than some of us realize, injure the soul and health of the individual.

The standards and exhausting pace which youth is subjected to

today are too great a strain. They all seem to be groping for something that they cannot find. Although a large percentage of them are happy and contented, it is brought on by artificiality and lacks the wholesomeness and richness which must have prevailed before the machine age.

Entertainment has become commercialized but, thank God, there are still some who thrill at the beauty of the changing seasons, find pleasure in the crisp tang of a wintry morning, gasp at the finesse with which Mother Nature opens her feather bag and spreads a white quilt over a dirty city, and marvel at nature's brilliant panorama of wonders.

The young people of today seem to be guided less and less by religion, although they have all felt, at some critical period in their lives, that there is a Supreme Power. But it is quite often just at these critical times that they go to Him for help. I know of so many youth who attend church and prayer meetings "religiously" and they absorb all the "blessed" words to which they are exposed. Yes, and their families are "good" Methodists, Baptists, or Catholics. In too many cases theirs is not a seven-day religion. Their "religion" ends on Sunday night. For the other six days they can be just as dishonest, deceitful, and lacking in character as they wish. It is too bad, but that is a fact for I have seen it happen so many times. And then there are some of the finest people of "teen age" I have ever met who rarely, if ever, attend church. In youth as well as adulthood religion seems to be a way of life—not a matter of going to church. Many students have faith in God and know the difference between right and wrong. I believe that is all that is necessary for a "religious" life.

One of the most distressing problems of the younger generation is that of drinking. Parents would be shocked—I mean parents of the "good boys and girls" would be shocked—if they knew everything about "little Johnny." That does not mean that young people drink to excess, but it can lead to that. Drinking is considered

smart. It is talked about in a smart manner. Any reference to it in textbooks or class discussions sends a wave of giggles or grins around the room. In the "movies" if an intoxicated person walks across the screen they laugh hilariously. So much of their talk runs along these lines: "So and so had three beers last night. Boy! Did he look silly." And this is what too many of them consider fun.

The problems begin in the home. The young tend to adopt the ideas and attitudes of the older. The adults have liquor around and hold gay parties. Naturally, if it is all right for their parents, it cannot be too bad for them. The familiar tavern, with neon lights and Venetian blinds, is another source of the liquor problem as applied to youth.

Athletics probably play the leading role in the recreational life of the younger generation. Athletics have become one of the most important factors in bringing to light and correcting the faults of both boys and girls. A young person, active or successful in athletics, seems to develop a high degree of self-confidence. Aside from the physical value of athletics, it gives him poise, teaches good sportsmanship, enables him to get along with others better, and tends to develop a stronger and more interesting personality. However, in my observations, this is quite often true only if he translates his "athletic life" into his "real life." Some of our high-school athletic heroes turn out to be weak in character and conduct when "off the field."

Much has been said concerning sex and modern youth and much more could be said about it. However, very little is done about the matter. "Authorities" talk and write many articles on the subject but that is about as far as it goes. There is absolutely no doubt of the fact that sex in one form or another is the chief topic of conversation among the young people. Of course it is perfectly natural and harmless if it is kept on a high plain. Unfortunately it too often drops to the level of a "smut session." I believe this is due chiefly to the fact that they are unable to handle intelligently the new knowl-

edge gained. Then, too, this knowledge has no authoritative source to back it up. It seems to me educators ought to get their heads together and write a complete and nonsensational book of explanation. Then every high-school student should be required to read it and make a report on it.

Until about their junior year in high school, young people are only slightly aware or interested in their future. Up to this time they have failed to realize that the transition from dependence to independence—from their comparatively small world to a vast and more complicated world—is a reality. Those who are fortunate enough to continue their schooling have a few more years before they must face the open road, but to the thousands who must step out of high school and search for jobs the outlook is far from bright. It is then that present-day conditions have a distressing effect on them.

In every school there are some you know will succeed, even though they have no financial means. They have initiative; not just a little, but a lot of initiative. I believe there is a place in life for every one. The problem is to find it. Those who have an abundance of this thing called initiative can find it.

Thus far I have spoken mainly of the average youth. However, scattered among these are a few other types. There is the one-hundred-per-cent idealist. Very often he or she is apt to be somewhat lonely, but in clinging to this idealism the individual will no doubt ensure his winning in the end providing he has some degree of practicalness. And then there is the eccentric, whose appeal often lies in his eccentricities. Although quite often impractical, he is apt to be clever in many ways and usually finds contentment. The odd genius in a school lacks a normal social life, but his superiority in mental power puts him far ahead in other ways. The question is often brought up as to whether there really is the so-called "sissie." I say no. When you get right down to it, the "sissie" is a combination of the above-mentioned types.

There is the item of convention, too. Convention is the real enemy of youth. If one does not conform to the ideas, activities, and actions of the "big crowd" he is out socially. Ninety-nine times out of a hundred a youngster does not have a taste for liquor. In his mind he says over and over again, "All of them are doing it. It won't hurt me this once." It is the same with smoking. Rare is the fellow or girl who begins smoking for the love of it. But they wish to make a "sophisticated" impression. What a satisfaction it is to "light up a Lucky," exhale the floating puffs into the ozone, and delicately flick off the ashes with a deft touch of the little finger. Yes, it is "smart," but how stupid and pitiful. What I am trying to get at is that the average youth starts out to be good and fine and wholesome, but the actions and ideas of others kill many of his natural tendencies.

A complete solution to all the problems of youth is impossible. Much has been done for them, but much more could be done. Here is what I would do.

Open wide every available vacant building, lot, room, nook, and cranny. Fill them with worth-while and wholesome recreational facilities. Have every single community organization collaborate for a nationwide youth project. Bar all taverns, poolrooms, and similar "hangouts" to them. Provide numerous light and airy dance halls and stock the refreshment bar with milk shakes and soda pop. Bring more hay rides, dogs, family life, good books, and good motion pictures into the lives of the young people. Let loose an avalanche of fine motion pictures that would set an example and at the same time be entertaining and "painless."

I think that all schools (beginning in the seventh or eighth grade) should require many laboratory and shop courses—courses that touch on almost every type of occupation. In this way the student can decide at an early age what practical thing interests him. Then he should be encouraged to "stick to it," so that at the time of graduation he would have a complete picture of his future job.

Throughout this essay there are a number of harsh statements which, perhaps, give the impression that I condemn youth. This is by no means true. The "teen age" is the most interesting and likable group of people on earth. I like to see them in the summer, in gaily colored polo shirts contrasted with a healthy coat of tan. I love to watch them munch on marshmallow sundaes decked with crushed fruit, nuts, and maraschino cherries. I enjoy their frenzied antics to the tune of the ice-cream parlor nickelodeon. I like to see them out camping, drinking in all the glories of outdoor life, glowing with health, and always ready to go. But why shouldn't youth appeal to me, I am one of them!

Paul Sipprell, a postgraduate student in the high school at East Aurora, New York, is a member of the local chapter of *Quill and Scroll* and prepares a weekly feature "Highschool Highlights" for the community newspaper. He expects to go to college to continue training for a career in journalism.

YOUTH LOOKS AT PEACE AND WAR

GAY FOLLMER

Today we are faced with the prospect of involvement in war. It does no good to play ostrich. In any war a great part of the burden is carried by youth—not only because it is largely youth who serve on the battlefield, but because when war is over youth finds its visions blackened, its opportunities ruined, and its world obliterated. Yet it is always youth that must build a new world from this chaos. Therefore, youth has a right to speak.

A fact which has been held continually before our eyes is that war is horrible. Pictures of civil war in Spain, the Japanese invasion of China, and the Russian invasion of Finland have told us vividly that war is hell. Moreover, we have read books, such as Remarque's *All Quiet on the Western Front*, Gibb's *Middle of the Road*, and more recently Hemingway's *For Whom the Bell Tolls*, books which certainly attribute no romance or glory to war. Yes, I think

we know what war means. We know the madness, and agony, and brutality. Could one forget the pictures of torn men in the streets of Madrid, or of fear-crazed mobs in China, or of frozen Russian soldiers in Finland?

In fact we know war so well that we would sacrifice almost anything for the sake of peace. Some of us have stated—and all of us have heard some one state at some time—that war has never saved anything, that all wars are caused by the machinations of selfish moneygrubbers, that war is the most awful catastrophe which can befall civilization, that almost any condition is preferable to war.

Perhaps such statements are entirely correct. One surely could not say that war is the best way or even a permanent way of preserving certain ideals. We know that a good many wars have been promoted for the financial benefit of a few quick-fingered men. One surely could not deny that war is catastrophic. But are there not a few—a very few—circumstances worse than war?

I believe that oppression is worse than war. Freedom is worth any price, even war. Freedom! The word is tossed about so lightly that for some of us it no longer has any meaning. Yet place it beside its opposite, look at the words, and think. Freedom—Slavery.

We have a choice. Which one shall it be? If we brush away the cobwebs, we discover that neutrality is a fine word—as long as both sides can with fairness be regarded as equal champions of right or wrong. Assuredly we have heard propaganda from both participants in the present war. But we *know* that Hitler's movement has put men in concentration camps because they had the courage to write what they pleased, or speak what they thought, or worship where they desired. We know that Hitler deliberately crushed science and learning in his country so that he might substitute the myth of racial superiority. We know that in *Mein Kampf* he declared all democracies were his enemies and it was his aim to defeat them all. We know—with reference to *The Revolution of Nihilism* by Rauschning—that world chaos and anarchy are Hitler's aims.

We know that the Nazis at their Fuehrer's command removed any one so unfortunate as to obstruct their path; for example, the Austrian leader, Dollfuss. We know that Hitler has established in his country the belief that war is a magnificent activity.

The most stupid man who has eyes to see or ears to hear must realize that in the seven years since he came to power Hitler—in violation of his treaties and his pledged word—has taken over the democracies. You know the list—Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Norway, the Netherlands, Belgium, France. Unless one refuses to face reality, he must see that Hitler seized these countries not because his nation was a "have-not" nation and deserved to be a "have" nation, but rather because Hitler has an insane desire for power. That is not a supposition. He has written it out for any one to read. He even told the methods he would use to grasp this power. Belgium and Holland and France did not believe him.

As the United States was not able permanently to exist half slave and half free, so the world cannot permanently exist half slave and half free. True, it is impossible to draw arbitrary lines and state that one side is right and the other side completely wrong. There are points in favor of each. But roughly there is freedom, and there is slavery.

The one thing worth fighting and even dying for is, then, freedom. Neither national honor, nor conquest of territory, nor extension of national culture, nor any other good is worth the horror of war. But freedom is worth it. Through all the ages men have died so that freedom might live. Those men felt that they owed something not only to themselves but to those who would come after them. So it is with us. Without freedom life is not worth living.

If we must fight, let us prepare ourselves as well as is humanly possible. If we must fight, let us do it without hesitation and without fear. Finally, if we must fight, if we must make a war, let us also remember that we must make a peace.

Once before men died so that "the world would be safe for

democracy." Once before they died "to end war." Let us not muff our chance again. It might very possibly be the last one we would get. War is the ultimate in futility, stupidity, and tragedy. Man has a brain which can show him the way to lasting peace—if he will only think.

All people who are well acquainted with world affairs, with world economies and politics, realize that the world is a unit and its peoples one. This fact is clearly demonstrated by the world-wide depression which followed the World War. In the case of international relations, generosity is the greatest selfishness, for that which benefits one country ultimately benefits all. Obversely, that which harms one country harms all.

Many distinguished people, from William Penn to Clarence Streit, have propounded what they believed to be workable plans for the establishment of permanent peace. Maybe it is presumptuous that I, a high-school student, should put forth a plan. Nevertheless, I shall do so.

First, it seems likely that when the war ends we shall find the world on the whole either completely enslaved or completely free. There have been periods in history when civilization was almost completely blotted out by hordes of barbarians, yet somewhere a small flame of light glimmered until once more it could set the world on fire. Even the ruin of this present civilization would not mean that in the future some other might not arise, greater than this, possessing all of its virtues and fewer of its weaknesses. But let us take the only hypothesis useful to us. Let us suppose that we are not slaves but free men.

Our task is to abolish war forever. Perhaps we could accomplish this through a federation of states. This federation would have to include every nation. It would necessitate the lessening of national sovereignty. It would maintain an international army, small, modern, and efficient, controlled by all nations. No country would be allowed an armed force except one comparable to civil police.

In this federation of states there would be an international currency. Tariffs would be abolished so that free trade could exist throughout the world.

Of course, the federation would be a democracy. There is no other form of government that would work. Since only men and women without political experience make obedient subjects for dictators, it would be necessary to nurture carefully young republics, such as Germany and Italy would become—according to our hypothesis.

The most important field would be education. We must teach the common brotherhood of all men. This is no pious dogma. Unless we realize our essential brotherhood, we can never hope for peace. If I realize that the Russian, for instance, has the same hopes and fears, likes and dislikes that I have; if I realize that he thinks and talks about the same subjects, though he uses a different language; if I realize in short that he is as human as I am, then I would consider it ridiculous to shoot him because some one assured me that a Russian was a brutal monster who had no right to live. I would know the Russian was actually the same kind of man as my next-door neighbor.

It would be interesting to experiment with education to see if it is not possible to raise a generation free of prejudice and fear, a generation trained to think, a generation steeped in tolerance instead of intolerance. We might begin with America. Would it not be a stimulating experience to read the history of the American Revolution written from the British point of view? Nearly two centuries of patriotically edited textbooks have managed to give us a viewpoint highly American but slightly one-sided. Maybe a Spanish history of the Spanish-American War would be equally revealing. I suggest these mainly because we cannot expect other people to do what we will not do. Unless all the people of the world can endure a bit of seeing the other fellow's view, for a change, the federation of states would collapse.

The federation of which I speak or some similar organization must be created unless mankind prefers eventual destruction. We can achieve permanent peace if we are willing to work for it. Liberty and peace for all the world! Why should we not establish them—we who will be the adults of tomorrow?

Gay Follmer, sixteen years of age and a junior in Central High School, Omaha, Nebraska, is majoring in languages and social science. Of her work and plans, she writes: "The most interesting class I have ever had was just begun this year. There are only two people in it and we are free to study in any way we please. Our purpose is to prepare for the annual League of Nations contest in the spring. Miss Elsie Fisher, our instructor, is extremely interested in the subject and very fine to work with. I am almost as much interested in music as in writing—which means a great deal. I play several instruments, piano, viola, and a little bit on the 'cello. At present I am taking voice lessons and getting a great deal of pleasure from it—although that probably could not be said for my listeners. One of the things I enjoy most is my work on the school newspaper, the *Register*, of which I am 'Literary Editor'—an extra nice way of saying book reviewer. The only other article I have had printed is in a recently published book, *A Great American*, written in tribute to General John J. Pershing. The book was compiled by the Pershing Memorial Commission appointed by the Nebraska legislature. After graduation I intend to go on to college. Hoping to become a writer someday, I write short stories for practice and, incidentally, for the fun I get out of it."

YOUTH LOOKS AT CAREERS

SPENCER J. DVORKIN

With eight millions of Americans unemployed today, the thousands of high-school and college graduates must ask themselves what chance they have of getting a job. Too often the answer is that they will be taken care of in time. It is too bad that no good-natured fairy is watching over each and every one of us to make sure we are a success. The number of unemployed shows that this is not the case.

A large number of unemployed youth is a definite menace to our democratic system. Foreign propaganda finds some of the most fertile soil in the minds of the unemployed. "At least these foreign countries have very little unemployment," is often the statement of many of our youth.

Disappointed youth, brought up in the frustration and degradation produced by unemployment, will not make good citizens. It is hard to convince youth that a democratic system is the best way of life, when that system leaves them unemployed. A disgruntled person will not make a good citizen. The government of tomorrow is in the hands of the youth of today. If youth does not believe in democracy, there will be no democracy when it controls the government.

Our society demands that all of us have jobs, but it does not provide for all of us. If society will not offer jobs to the youth of America, youth must take care of itself. Society may give as an excuse that there are no more "frontiers" left today, but this is not true. There are many new opportunities these days: radio, television, motion pictures, air conditioning, Diesel engineering, plastics, indirect lighting, and others. All life must be planned. In order to get a job, one must take certain definite steps. These steps must be well planned. The time to start planning is right now.

Only a very few people have jobs thrust upon them. Most job-seekers must find work through their own initiative. The primary requisite is self-study. You must know yourself. Do not waste your talents by going into an occupation that will not utilize them to the fullest extent. Do not try for a job that is out of your reach.

In order to know yourself, it is best to find out the appeal certain jobs give to you. Vacation and week-end jobs, trips to neighboring factories, workshops, plants, and laboratories, etc., talks with workingmen and business men in all fields, and the reading of books dealing with different occupations will enable you to set something as your goal.

Experience may enable you to measure your talents. Hobbies often show a person's special abilities, but a better analysis may be made through aptitude tests, vocational ability examinations, personality tests, etc. The combination of your scholarship record with your abilities and intelligence often enables an expert vocational

counselor to see if you have a chance in the job of your selection.

Often the final selection of a life career depends on the conditions of the job itself. It is helpful to know whether special knowledge is needed, whether perfect eyesight is required, what is the chance for advancement, whether the salary is good, etc. This information may be got from surveys, pamphlets, and from men who work in that profession.

The chief way to study for a job is through the schools. The best training is got in colleges and universities especially equipped for the study. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, for instance, is one of the best places to study engineering because it has one of the best equipped engineering schools in the country. It must be stressed, however, that only people with good scholastic averages are able to get into these schools.

A unique place to study for a job is Antioch College. The main feature of that college is its "coöperative plan." In the second year of a five-year course, two people work together on the same job. One studies in the college for ten weeks while the other works in a regular job obtained through the school. Then they reverse. The feature of this plan is that "book knowledge" learned in the school is put to practical use in commercial jobs. This training gives the student valuable experience in the field while he is still studying for it. It also introduces him to job situations which are real—real since he must live up to all job requirements, and because he actually gets paid.

An important step in getting a job is your ability to say that you have had some experience in the work. Therefore, constant practice is extremely helpful. Week-end jobs, acting as assistant helper in stores or laboratories, should give valuable experience.

Very few employers are going to beat a path to your door begging to employ you. You must have clever selling ability. The best jobs are not advertised in the newspapers. You must go to the proper

place to advertise your wares. This means registering in an employment agency, and, if a company has a personnel department, registering in it.

If you have not yet learned how to write good English, you had better learn quickly. The next step is a letter of application. In your letter you should stress your strong points. Tell of your experience, and show the employer how it would be to his best advantage to employ you. If a personal interview can be arranged, it will be very helpful. First impressions count a great deal. Do not enter the room like a bombshell or like a frightened rabbit. You do not get "chummy" or shut up like a clam and expect the employer to discover your virtues. Tell him your strong points. Recently an ex-salesman had a seven-foot graph made showing his sales record for his previous years of employment. He showed this to the employer and was hired on the spot.

You should be well dressed and perfectly at ease. Little details count. How you walk, talk, how you fix your hair, all add up considerably. Treat the office girl nicely, for often a word from her will either hire you or send you on your way. Do not say you are more than you really are. The truth will win out. Offer yourself just as you are and hope for the best.

Once you get a job, do not stay too long without thinking of improving yourself. You will find neighboring schools and colleges offering courses in your field. Study, improve yourself, and you will thereby improve your chances of being a success.

Not more than 20 per cent of the high-school population is interested in college entrance and even less than that actually get to college. Therefore information pertaining to applying for a job, where to get the necessary training, etc., should be given in the high school. Some of this information is given in the first-term civics course, but more benefit would be derived from the course if it were amplified and given to all eighth termers in all high schools. A

youth would feel more secure with this general information at his disposal and would be encouraged to look for vocational opportunities in his community.

Spencer J. Dvorkin is sixteen years old and a junior in the High School of Science, Bronx, New York. He expects to continue his work in science and mathematics preparatory to entering college to secure a degree in chemical engineering. His hobbies are stamp collecting and reading.

YOUTH LOOKS AT POLITICS

(FIRST PRIZE)

ERNEST R. GRAY, JR.

Some one once said, "A politician is the only animal that can sit astride a fence and yet keep both ears on the ground." Why this should be necessary I do not know. A definition of the word politician is "One who is engaged in politics," while in the dictionary politics is defined as the science of civil government. It would almost appear that any one can be a politician. All he has to do is to experiment with the government and he will be a student of scientific government, or in other words a politician.

To me, a young man of seventeen, a politician is a vicious meddler who is in the business for a profit. This may seem a provincial idea, but every politician I have ever seen or even heard of has had plenty of money, many of them with large expensive cars and luxurious homes. I do not mind all their extravagances. What I want to know is where is all this money coming from? When our country has the biggest national debt it has ever known, how can all these jovial politicians get their hands on all this money that they so happily fritter away? How have these people obtained this strangle hold on us? How, when this is a democracy, can a certain group exert such great influence? Well, it all started way back in George Washington's time.

According to James Bryce in his *The American Commonwealth*, the history of American political parties and machine politics began

in 1778 when two opposing tendencies arose—one in favor of strengthening the central government and the other in favor of upholding the state. Why Mr. Bryce thinks this is of paramount importance I do not know. I think that James Madison had the real idea when in my own words he said that party differences arose between the haves and the have nots. Now this has to be interpreted very carefully or a misconstrued opinion may result. He says that the party differences arose from this, and that the economic feeling was lost later on. Alexander Johnston said that party organization began in 1791. Evidently these differences had grown so great and so many that an organization was needed to settle them; hence each party started to organize. In Washington's administration feeling rose high against the measures taken by Hamilton and his followers. To combat them, the opposition organized their party and called it the Democratic-Republican Party. Thus at that time the mad and glorious train ride of the politicians left the station and started out. The Federalists laid the rails in front of the train by following suit.

For about seven years the ride was very slow and then all of a sudden the opposition disappeared and the train coasted slowly downhill for twenty-eight years. During this time the northwest region of the country was settled and in the year 1828 there was a sudden shift of power and the Democratic-Republicans were out. The man who did more to help this train ride of politicians and machine politics was elected president. With Andrew Jackson as chief engineer and dispatcher and conductor, the train picked up speed when the spoils system was started. The spoils system! What a disgusting idea that was! By that system any man in the party in power was entitled to a job when he helped to get his party to Washington. It is interesting to note that this system came from the West where a few years ago politics and political jobs were sacred. Why there was this change no one knows, or no one wants to guess. Maybe it was because the people in that region had a feeling that it was about time they had an active interest in their govern-

ment and to get that interest they would use methods that were much more certain than the conventional ones.

During the first eight years that these people were in power many radically changed social conditions arose. The financial and industrial interests of New England and the Middle West now had aligned against them the laboring classes, the farmers of the West, and the slave owners who raised cotton in the South. Also at this time the chief parties changed their names. The Democratic-Republicans now became the Democrats and the Federalists became the Republicans.

Starting with Jackson the lower class Americans became the chief factors in the guiding of the country. This also brought about new ideas. How to control these masses of people. What a nightmare the politicians had! Out of this crisis the present-day idea of machine politics arose. The parties would split the country into districts and over these districts there would be supervisors who nowadays are called the precinct executive. This man has to ensure that all the party members are in the fold and also as many independents as possible. Above him there is a ward executive. All the way to the top there are these officials. To be a candidate for any office you must be friendly with all these petty officials and also the higher ups. They all exact their prices. Now where does the money come from? That must be a deep secret because no one really knows. Maybe those at the heads of the parties know but not you or I. We are just the scapegoats of an outmoded political policy. You and I in other words are the backbone of the nation. If we give way the country will sink. Therefore this system is outmoded and we can do without the politicians and machine politics.

According to Frank R. Kent politicians play the "great game of politics." To do anything or to be anything a person must play ball with the politicians. You could not even get to first base politically speaking without dropping a contribution in the party coffers. Why should you or I have to make this contribution if we are interested

in working for our country? I may be wrong, but it appears to me that about all the politician is good for is to extend favors but always at a price, and, with his pals who are in the same business, to pull the strings that determine, more than we like to believe, those who presumably, but not actually, are our representatives in government.

Politics in America must be cleaned up. It is for us the coming voters to ensure this house cleaning. We have a duty to perform, some of us see, in time more will see it and the job will be well done. Indeed, some one once said, "To get a traffic light at that dangerous intersection, a politician must be killed there. Just see how quickly a light would be installed."

Ernest R. Gray, Jr., seventeen years of age, was born in India and came to the United States "at an early age." He is now a senior in the Oyster Bay High School, Long Island, studying science, language, mathematics, and English, and participating in various other activities including the school orchestra and chorus and the Boy Scouts. This fall he expects to enter Duke University.

YOUTH LOOKS AT POLITICS (SECOND PRIZE)

BERNARD GREENBERG

When one thinks of politics he thinks in terms of present candidates and recent issues, never realizing the extent of political activity in this country. Most citizens of our nation do not realize that our country is considered by the election bosses as four different voting sections. People have been told of the "solid South" many times, but few realize what this means. "Maine and Vermont" are family by-words. These are two of the sections into which this nation is divided. Let me explain what I mean by this statement.

If in the first case the South is always considered Democratic, the latter always Republican, why is this so? Almost since the time of the Civil War, each new generation of voters has voted exactly as their parents had done, and the political bias has become a tradition applicable to all campaigns. The majority of voters know little of

the candidates and their differences, voting simply by following the pattern of custom.

The South is Democratic mainly because Lincoln was Republican. The Northeast usually votes Republican for no more apparent reason than that the South is Democratic.

Now for the other two sections. The belt stretching from New York to Illinois is the doubtful section. Actually, election results there depend on the weather mostly. If it rains, the farmers do not get to the polls, and the vote in the cities is the deciding factor. If the weather is clear, then they do, and a plurality of rural votes, which are usually the opposite of those in the urban centers, swings the election. Then all the election depends upon is which outnumbers the other and what party is for which group—urban or rural?

The Far West is the fourth of the political divisions. Its votes depend upon which party does more or can do more for their particular constituents. Local "bosses" in these two parts are vital factors in small elections. It is wrong to say Democratic "bosses" because both parties have these treacherous creatures.

One might ask from where these men get their "pull." Mainly from the fact that they hand out jobs, relief, and special "favors." An election is really only in a minor way a people's choice. It has become a conflict governed not by the relative ability of respective candidates but by weather, one man's choice, and tradition.

Let us now consider another factor of American politics—the electoral college. A president can be elected even though he receives only forty-two per cent of the popular vote. In one or more instances in our history, the "successful" candidate received less than half of the votes of the people. This, of course, is entirely unfair. The popular vote should be the governing factor. But if this solution does not satisfy, would it not be wise to establish proportional representation of the States' electoral votes? For example, Mr. A. gets one million votes, Mr. B. gets one-half million. If the State has fifteen votes, then the former should receive ten votes, and the latter five.

With this system the college would become really representative of the popular vote, instead of far from a real reflection as it is now.

There are many subtle laws and requirements for voting that restrict our freedom of voting. The poll tax is the most obvious. The Negro is poor. He cannot afford the money, so he does not vote. The rule that a man's father had to vote if he is to do so is the most vicious. How can any Negro or immigrant vote, if his parents were slaves, or if he has no American ancestors? Luckily, this prejudice holds sway in only a few States.

It hurts me to continue. These procedures are simply criminal. When will our people wake up and make our nation really a "land of the free"? Our political slate needs a thorough cleaning and it is evidently up to us, of the younger generation, to get busy.

Bernard Greenberg, sixteen years old and a sophomore in the High School of Science, Bronx, New York, is interested in aviation, engineering, and architecture, and his hobbies include model building, drafting, and painting.

YOUTH EVALUATES ITS IDEALS

(FIRST PRIZE)

EMMA RUSSELL HELMS

In a few years, we, the youth of today, will take over our duties as leaders of this country; at the same time we will have new privileges which we must rightly use. The question is: Are we capable of having so important a task entrusted to us? Or, first of all, do we realize its importance? To this last question I will say this: we certainly should. If a senior-high-school student has not already made up his mind where he stands in this world and what he intends to do and be, then he does not deserve the privileges which he is receiving each day. That kind of person is destined to go through life as a cheater—cheating himself of ambition and determination. It should be in our minds definitely just how we are going to be beneficial to our generation. We cannot shirk our duty any longer. Some one asks, "Are there any that want to?" "Yes," I say regret-

fully, "there are." There are always some persons who fail to coöperate in carrying their fair share of responsibility for the welfare of their community and of the nation.

I have tried to point out (and every one should already know) that we cannot have privileges without responsibilities. If we are given protection, education, recreation, and opportunity, then most surely obedience, service, and loyalty are expected from us. We must be the ones to encourage others to do their best. A democracy can be either the worst type of government or the best.

Where does our country stand? And what are we going to do to make it even better? Whenever people fail to do helpful things or insist on doing harmful ones, society will crumble. Therefore, in order that we may be sure of protection and progress, it becomes necessary that people do some things and not others. Society will function and prosper if the accomplishments of its members are directed in such a manner as to increase the well-being of all. Let each of us, then, learn what our responsibilities are and know where we stand.

In a democracy every one has an opportunity to be heard. Every one has his own opinion and the freedom of attempting to influence others to think or act as he does. These opinions or attitudes increase in large groups and grow so strong that they may prevail over other opinions. Lincoln said that public opinion is the strongest force in the world. Government officials are most anxious to please the public in national affairs. Since so many people are influenced by public opinion, we must appreciate this power. The most vital agent of all in the formation of public opinion is ordinary, everyday conversation. Perhaps if we realized this fully we should be a bit more careful. We should seek to train our thoughts to as near perfection as possible, and resolve that when we say something to influence others we will understand the subject fully and know that we are influencing for the best.

Now we must not stop here, once we realize our responsibilities,

know where we stand, and know what to say. We are gifted with innumerable friends, and many more acquaintances. Are these people going to stand in our way to success or are we going along to prosperity and happiness together? The answer lies in our attitude toward one another. If we do not learn how to live together effectively, or if we fail to use such knowledge, we will get in one another's way so that no one will make much progress. If, however, we learn how to live together effectively, and use this knowledge to the full, all of us shall make progress. Therefore, cultivate friends, let them be steppingstones to success, not barriers. Learn to mix with people. Even if one does not desire to become a successful person, he still must associate with people. The purpose of our life together is to satisfy the wants which we cannot satisfy alone. This reminds me of two lines from Percy Bysshe Shelley,

Are we not formed as notes of music are,
For one another, tho' dissimilar?

If we take all these preceding steps toward bettering ourselves for the future, we are well on the way to success. Still we have to have many small but important characteristics or qualities. One of these is culture, for culture influences our life together. Matthew Arnold said, "Culture is not satisfied till we all come to a perfect man; it knows that the sweetness and light of the few must be imperfect until the raw and unkindled masses of humanity are touched with sweetness and light." Of course we can accomplish nothing if we go into it with ignorance. We must have knowledge. Knowledge may be called the great light that has brightened the pathway of human progress. Few sentences contain more truth than the three words of Francis Bacon, "Knowledge is power." We should be careful, however, not to think that knowledge alone is sufficient. Even so wise a person as Socrates seems to have made the mistake of thinking that the person who knows most, especially about human nature, will be the best person. Some modern people think that the person who

has knowledge is the one who will put most into life and get most out of life, but in reality there are some people who know a great deal but who are miserable failures because they do not make effective use of what they know. It takes knowledge plus an effective use of that knowledge to build a successful life.

Yet, beyond all this, a person, to succeed, must possess a deep religious conviction. Without religion there is no true peace. Religion brings sympathy and inspiration. When we are lonely or sick or sorrowful or afraid, or lose our sense of values, it may comfort us and fortify us against what Shakespeare called "the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune." Religion has suggested many ideals and inspired many people to attain them. A religious writer once said, "Train up a child in the way he should go; and when he is old, he will not depart from it." Religion is playing an important part in this training.

We have these ideals we are to reach. There are many more. But, somehow, I think that when the fundamentals are mastered, the others come easy just by doing them. May we be forever attaining higher levels of success by keeping high ideals and remaining courageous and honest citizens of a democracy.

Emma Russell Helms, seventeen years old, is a senior taking the Latin course in the Sidney Lanier High School, Montgomery, Alabama, and is assistant editor of the school's paper *The White and the Blue*. She plans to study sociology when she enters college next fall and would like to go to the University of North Carolina.

YOUTH EVALUATES ITS IDEALS (SECOND PRIZE)

IRVING PFEFFERBLIT

Today the civilization that we know is confronted with a tremendous threat. The threat is not to its security, or to its comfort, but to its very existence. Why? Where has this threat sprung from; where comes its power?

There is a type of modern man who is ready with the answers.

He springs at you, waving his arms and shouting, "Economics, post-war theories, Versailles treaties." He is likely to be a very intelligent person, a liberal. He is a liberal—and he has made the error which all the liberals of the past century have made. The principal tenet of his faith was the theory of the innate goodness of man, that science would make the world over into a social Eden, and that the people would adapt themselves accordingly. Anything outside the realm of physical phenomena was scorned. He looked uncomfortable when one discussed religion or talked about morals. He did not need these things; he would build the world over from without.

And yet, though liberals rejected the improvement of the spirit, they never lost their faith in it. They always believed in the essential goodness of humanity and in its moral values, truth, good, justice.

Therefore they were entirely unprepared for it, when a new philosophy, a new religion, burst upon the world, which had as its essential articles of faith the complete negation of all the ideals the world had held in common for ten thousand years.

The group called "liberals" attempted in some measure even to find moral excuses for the fascists, though the fascists themselves trumpeted to the world the fact that they were no longer bound by the old morals, in fact that they intended to do away with them.

The great decay of liberal courage and thought, therefore, must stand with economic and political reasons as one of the great causes for the growth of fascism. This much is certain. But in order to fight the destructive forces we must summon up as great a spirit as theirs; we must bend every sinew as they have bent every sinew to the task of becoming a nation unified in spirit and concept.

And to do this we must re-examine our ideals. To the youth of today we must explain that it is no longer fashionable to be cynical; it is no longer cultured to sneer. The postwar reaction bred of black despair must and need no longer engulf us. We have something now to fight for, something great and noble. A few years, or perhaps months, ago it would have been impossible to say that; one would

have been laughed to silence. But it is true now, and it will be true for a long time to come.

But what are the ideals we are fighting for? First of all, they are the fundamental moral values denied by Hitler and post-Nietzschean philosophers. We believe in humanity, in the ability of mankind to direct its own destiny, so that it shall go forward. We believe in justice and truth for all men.

Before this one could have said we all believe in that. But it is no longer true. These are the very things most patently denied by the dictators. We believe in life, and we will accept death to ensure the growth of life, and of civilization, which is life. We believe that the arbitrary discipline and the artificial efficiency of fascism are unhealthful products of an unhealthy creature. We believe that fascism does not offer a way out of the world dilemma we are in; that on the contrary it constitutes a refutation of every human goal but power. We believe in mankind and Hitler does not. We believe in the rights of men to enrich their lives and make them fuller and happier.

These are high-sounding words, but our times demand high ideals and high attempts. We stand ready to defend our ideals, to protect what we have accomplished in America and what we hope to accomplish. We stand ready to defend our ideals here, and to spread them abroad. That is the mission of Americans today.

Irving Pfefferblit, a sophomore in the High School of Science, Bronx, New York, is fourteen years old. He is majoring in science and writing is his hobby. He states that he has no definite plans as to the future, following graduation.

CURRENT POPULATION TRENDS AND RURAL EDUCATION

P. K. WHELPTON

Sociologists and educators no doubt would like a demographer writing on this topic to present information regarding trends in the quality of the rural population, especially in the innate ability of rural children to learn and to reason. This demographer would like very much to do so, but, since the chief sources of the data available on these matters are the tests given by various educators, it seems desirable for him to confine himself to quantitative trends. To discuss them at the present time is rather risky, with so few data now available from the 1940 Census and so many to be released soon. We know now the total number of people in 1940, some things as to their characteristics, and the total number of rural and urban people. Within a few months, however, we will be told the characteristics of rural and urban groups; e.g., their race, nativity, sex, age, marital condition, school attendance in March 1940, highest grade of school completed, occupation, employment status, weeks worked and wage or salary income during 1939, and place of residence on April 1, 1935. Several of these matters need to be considered in an adequate discussion of current population trends and rural education, but at present one can only guess at some of them on the basis of fragmentary information and with the realization that the guesses may soon be shown to differ widely from the Census figures.

One fact is already clear from the 1940 Census; namely, the slowing up of population growth in the United States as a whole is not affecting the schools serving the rural population as much as those serving the urban population. The national rate of population growth was cut in half during the last twenty years, being 16.1 per cent from 1920 to 1930 but only 7.2 per cent from 1930 to 1940. The urban growth rate dropped much more rapidly, from 27.3 per cent to 7.9 per cent, but the rural growth rate actually rose, from 4.4 per

cent to 6.4 per cent.¹ Rural growth was far from uniform throughout the nation, however. Among the States the highest rate of rural growth was 32.2 per cent in California, but gains of 15 per cent or more occurred in Rhode Island, Connecticut, Michigan, Florida, Nevada, Washington, and Oregon. At the other extreme, the largest rate of rural loss was 13.7 per cent in South Dakota, but decreases of 7.5 per cent or more occurred in North Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, and Oklahoma.

Variations in rural growth within States were greater than those between States. Many of the largest rural gains occurred in areas surrounding large cities, due chiefly to the development of autos, paved roads, and rural electricity which has made it feasible for city workers to live comfortably in the country. Most of the other large rural gains occurred in areas of the South and West which have no large city. "Some of them owe their rapid growth to such local events as the opening of an irrigation project, the discovery of oil, or the development of a resort area. On the other hand, there are a great many whose growth cannot be accounted for by such increases in their capacity to support people. A large part of them are found in the Appalachian highlands, in cutover regions in Michigan, Minnesota, and the South, in the swampy areas of the Gulf coast, in the western Ozarks, and in mountainous areas of the Far West."² The attraction of migrants to these poorer agricultural areas seems to occur largely because of the presence of a little tillable land and of woods providing shelter and fuel in return for their labor. These

¹ These percentages are from *Urban and Rural Population of the United States: 1940* (Washington, D. C.: Bureau of the Census) (a special release dated January 18, 1941, Series P-3, No. 7) and are based on the rural-urban population as of each Census. On this basis much of the urban growth from 1930 to 1940 occurred because many places classified as rural in 1930 gained enough to pass the 2,500 mark and be classified as urban in 1940. In contrast, if no such changes are made, the entire rural area of 1930 had a larger population gain during the decade than the entire urban area, a situation new in our Census history.

² Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, "Changes in Regional and Urban Patterns of Population Growth," *American Sociological Review*, vol. V, no. 6 (December 1940), p. 928.

resources and some outside work enable them to eke out a meager existence.

Most of the rural areas with large losses from 1930 to 1940 are located "in a wedge-shaped area extending roughly from central Montana to Sweetwater, Texas, then northeast to Kansas, and north to Canada. Much of this area is the 'Dust Bowl,' from which drought and wind have driven thousands of people since 1930. Furthermore, in all of this area, a less spectacular but highly important change has stimulated out-migration, namely, the continued increase in labor efficiency in agriculture. This development undoubtedly has been an important cause of the relatively large population losses which occurred in certain of the other 'rural' counties, several of which are located in the good farming areas of the Texas Black Lands and of north central Missouri."³

Changes in the total number of persons affect the educational system because of their relation to changes in property valuation and the ability of an area to support education, but, more directly, because of their relation to changes in the school population. Attention will be centered first on the latter. As in earlier decades, the national rates of increase for the population of school age differed significantly from those for older age groups. Due to the decreasing number of births since 1921 the number of children of elementary-school age (6 to 13) dropped sharply from 19,724,851 in 1930 to about 18,029,000 in 1940 (off 8.6 per cent). In contrast, the number of high-school age (14 to 17) increased over 3 per cent, from 9,341,221 in 1930 to about 9,650,500 by 1940, and the number of college age (18 to 21) jumped almost ten per cent, from 9,026,741 to about 9,843,000.

Variations between areas in gain or loss at the school ages probably have been as large as those for the total population, and probably have followed a similar pattern. In general, areas with the largest increase in total population have had the smallest decrease in chil-

³ Thompson and Whelpton, *loc. cit.*

dren 6 to 13, and the largest increase in children 14 to 17. Thus, the urban population increased 7.9 per cent from 1930 to 1940, children aged 14 to 17 increased 7.3 per cent, but children aged 6 to 13 decreased almost 10 per cent (from 9,756,584 to about 8,785,000). In rural areas the farm population as a whole was slightly smaller in 1940 than in 1930, and had a sharp drop in the number of children—over 9 per cent at ages 14 to 17, and almost 13 per cent at ages 6 to 13 (from 6,018,730 to about 5,238,000). In contrast, the rural-nonfarm population, which had the largest gain (14.5 per cent) during the decade, had 13.1 per cent more children aged 14 to 17 and 1.4 per cent more aged 6 to 13. While the decrease in the birth rate is responsible for the national decrease in the number of children of elementary-school age, differences in the downward trend of the birth rate in the urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural farm groups have played only a minor part in accounting for the differences in rates of change of children. Migration away from farms, and to suburban areas, has been the main causal factor.

This large national decrease in children of elementary-school age would seem to have offered an opportunity for some reduction in the total expenditures for elementary education. It is hardly fair, however, to multiply the decrease of 1,696,000 by \$75.00 (which is the approximate expenditure per pupil) and think of the resulting figure of about \$127,200 as possible savings. In the majority of school districts it has been impracticable to reduce the number of elementary teachers and the expenses for heat, building upkeep, and other items at a rate anywhere nearly equal to the reduction in enrollment. Frequently, too, the decrease in pupils has merely relieved overloaded teachers and overcrowded rooms, and has permitted needed improvement in the quality of educational services.

The large increases in number of school children which have occurred in many rural areas near large cities, contrary to the general trend, have raised extremely difficult problems for the local school-board members and teachers. Much of the adult population increase

in these areas consists of persons who work in city factories, stores, or offices which cannot be taxed by the school district in which they live. And while the new houses have raised the total property valuation in these rural districts, the per capita valuation is usually less than it was earlier when more of the local people lived on farms. Had it not been for the various State aid programs which have been put into effect the problem would have been much more serious in these districts.

What changes are to be expected in the number of youngsters of school age during the 1940's? This is an intriguing question. Considering the nation as a whole, the 18- to 21-year-old group should decline about 8.4 per cent, from about 9,843,000 to 9,020,000, and the 14- to 17-year-old group about 15 per cent, from about 9,650,500 to 8,170,000. Unexpected fluctuations in foreign immigration or in death rates may change the situation somewhat, but these estimates should be fairly reliable. Estimates of the 6- to 13-year-old group in 1950 are subject to a larger error, since nearly half of these youngsters are not yet born. However, the annual number of births has been within 4.7 per cent of 2,390,000 in each year since 1930 and may well continue within this range. Present indications are, therefore, that the 6 to 13 group will number 17,500,000 to 17,800,000 in 1950 compared with about 18,029,000 in 1940, a decline of 1.5 to 3.0 per cent.

From the standpoint of number of pupils, then, the elementary schools should not face as great a shrinkage in the demand for their services during the coming decade as during the past decade. In 1930 the rate of school enrollment was so high in this group (91.6 per cent) that it was practically impossible for an increase in enrollment rate to offset the decrease in number of children.⁴ As a result, recent years have seen a decrease in the nation as a whole in the number of elementary-school teachers needed. Although the downward trend

⁴ It might have occurred among southern Negroes, however, since only 80.25 per cent of the 6- to 13-year-olds in this group were attending school in 1930, according to the Census.

will continue during the present decade, it will be less abrupt in most places. As in the past, however, there will be some areas with large increases and others with large decreases in elementary-school population and in number of teachers needed.

If high-school enrollment is not to decline in the nation during the 1940's, it will be necessary to raise the proportion of "teeners" attending by over one sixth. According to the Census, 61.6 per cent of the 14- to 17-year-olds were enrolled in 1920 and 73.1 per cent in 1930. Quite likely there has been an increase to 80 or 85 per cent by 1940. Offsetting the 15 per cent decrease in youngsters of high-school age during the 1940's by adding 15 per cent to the proportion in school may thus be theoretically possible, but it certainly will be extremely difficult to carry out in the nation as a whole. The realistic outlook is that the decrease in elementary-school enrollment which has gone on in recent years in the United States will begin to affect the high schools during the 1940's. Moreover, the decrease will be large unless the rate of school enrollment is raised substantially. States which have made the most progress in this respect to date—the Pacific, Mountain, and East North Central States—probably will find further progress more difficult than the other States and hence may have the largest decreases in number of high-school pupils unless they receive migrants from other States in considerable numbers. Because of the greater tendency to expand the curricula in high schools than in elementary schools, the decrease in the number of high-school pupils may not reduce the demand for high-school teachers as much as has the decrease in elementary pupils. It is more likely, however, that many high-school teachers will be asked to teach additional subjects, hence that the teaching force will be reduced without narrowing the curricula.

As far as the number of potential students is concerned, colleges will face a simpler problem than high schools during the 1940's. Not only will the rate of decline in the age group be smaller, 8.4

per cent instead of 15 per cent, but there is a much larger opportunity to increase the proportion continuing their education. The Census shows 14.8 per cent of persons aged 18 to 20 attending school in 1920, 21.4 per cent in 1930,⁵ and may show 25 to 30 per cent in 1940. To offset the decrease in this age group during the 1940's it will be necessary to raise the proportion of these youths in school by only about one ninth. Whether it can be done probably depends in large measure on economic conditions and perhaps on the program of military training which is developed, but at least it is well within the realm of possibility. Evidently the tendency of the decrease in births to lower the number of college students and teachers can be postponed for many years to come.

How the 1,800,000 decrease from 1940 to 1950 in the number of children 6 to 17 will be divided between rural and urban areas is a matter on which opinions differ, and which depends in part on differences in the trend of the birth rate in rural and urban areas, but chiefly on rural-urban migration. Considering birth-rate trends, there are several reasons for believing that the decline will be more rapid among the rural population than the urban. In the first place, it is believed by most students of population that the decline in the birth rate for over a century has been brought about chiefly through an increase in the practice of contraception. Information about contraceptive methods is thought to have become available more readily to city dwellers than country dwellers, which in turn is held to be one of the main reasons why the birth rate has long been lower in urban than in rural areas. Since most married couples want some children, the decline in size of family within a population group should gradually slow down and perhaps even come to an end as contraceptive practices become widespread among that group. There is evidence that this situation is being reached more rapidly

⁵ No data regarding the number of persons 21 years of age attending school were published in these Censuses.

in the urban population than in the rural population. For several years to come, therefore, it is to be expected that the rural birth rate will decline more rapidly than the urban.

The trend of fertility in urban and rural areas during recent decades is in line with the above. This can best be seen by observing the number of children under five years of age per 1,000 women 20 to 44.⁶ For urban native white women the ratio was 399 in 1910 and 380 in 1930, a decline of 4.8 per cent, but for rural native white women the ratios were 779 and 683, a decline of 12.3 per cent. A similar change occurred among Negroes, the urban ratio declining only 2.7 per cent (from 365 to 355) but the rural ratio dropping 17.1 per cent (from 950 to 788). Among foreign-born white women the rural and urban ratios declined at about the same rate (28.1 and 26.7 per cent, respectively), but the proportion of these women living in rural areas has been so small in recent years that the trend in their fertility is not of much importance. Exact information about the changes in the native white and Negro ratios since 1930 is not yet available, but the indications are that the decline has continued to be more rapid in rural areas than in urban areas. A similar trend is to be expected during the next few years, hence, as far as birth rates are concerned, the elementary-school population should decrease in numbers more rapidly in rural areas than in urban areas from the present time to 1950.

The probable effect of migration during the 1940's on the increase or decrease of rural children of elementary- and high-school age is more difficult to evaluate. If the migration rate of the 1920's is followed, approximately 500,000 children in this group will shift from rural to urban areas. But if the rate resembles more closely that of the 1930's the net rural-urban shift for this group will involve less

⁶The ratios used in this comparison are adjusted for the underenumeration of children and standardized for age of women. They were prepared under the direction of Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton of the Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems and were published in *Population Statistics, 1. National Data* (Washington, D. C.: National Resources Committee), October 1937, pp. 40-50.

than 300,000 children. Events during recent months indicate a partial return to conditions of the 1920's when urban industry was booming, incomes of city workers were high, and large numbers of people were attracted from rural areas. It remains to be seen, however, how long the great stimulus of preparing for defense will remain in effect, and whether more normal peacetime activities can maintain the present rapid pace of industry if "preparedness" slackens.

Even if industrial activity remains at a high level throughout the decade, it is questionable whether the larger cities will gain by migration as they did during the 1920's. For one thing, many of the additions to present factories and still more of the new factories are being located in small cities and rural areas, usually in the area surrounding a larger city but sometimes far from one. Undoubtedly, the tendency to avoid large cities on the part of persons influencing the location of industry is due in part to military reasons—the belief that concentration increases the chance of damage by bombing. But in part it may result from a realization that large numbers of people think they can live cheaper outside of crowded city areas, like it better to boot, and hence may be cheaper to hire and easier to manage if living in the country.

Thanks in part to *Grapes of Wrath*, attention has been called to several disturbing aspects of the "Dust Bowl" migration during the 1930's more than to the problem faced by the schools in attempting to educate the children of these migrant families. While this migration resulted primarily from climatic and economic conditions, and while the abnormalities of the former are particularly difficult to anticipate, it is probable that the present decade will not present similar problems on as large a scale. Perhaps the nearest approach will be in such localities as Charleston, Indiana, and other rural areas where a large "defense" industry is being developed.

With the above exceptions, it seems probable that the migration pattern of the 1940's will resemble more closely that of the 1930's

than that of the 1920's, but will be on a smaller scale. A decline in the amount of net rural-urban movement may offset the more rapid decrease in the rural birth rate than the urban, and mean that the number of children of elementary- and high-school age will decline at about the same rate in rural and urban areas during the 1940's.

The decrease in the children and increase in the total population during the last decade has resulted in a sharp drop in the ratio of the former to the latter. Taking 7 to 17 as the school ages⁷ and 20 to 64 as the productive ages, the school population per 100 producers in the United States declined slowly from 40.0 in 1920 to 38.8 in 1930 and then fell to about 33.2 in 1940. Judging from past birth-rate trends, the decline will continue to be rapid during the 1940's, and the ratio will be about 27.5 in 1950. As far as numbers of pupils are concerned, therefore, the burden of education to be carried by the working population is considerably lighter now than ten years ago, and should be lightened relatively more in the next ten years. Improving the quality of education, however, may increase the cost per child more than enough to offset the saving through fewer children.

The ratio of school-age population to producing-age population has varied widely between areas, chiefly because of migration and birth-rate differentials. Rural areas in particular have faced a much bigger educational task than urban areas. In 1920 urban areas had 31.5 children 7 to 17 per 100 adults 20 to 64, but rural areas had 51.0, an excess of over sixty per cent. The difference narrowed slightly by 1930, the urban ratio then being 31.8 and the rural ratio 49.6. During the past decade the rural ratio dropped somewhat more than the urban, nevertheless the 1940 rural ratio of about 42.0 is over fifty per cent above the urban ratio of about 27.4.

Such differences in the ratios of children to adults are excellent reasons for not expecting each school district to pay all the costs of

⁷ These ages are chosen instead of those used earlier because Census data are available for them by urban and rural areas in 1920 and 1930.

educating its children, and for equalizing the burden at least partially by using State or Federal funds. The argument for such programs is strengthened greatly by the fact that an important proportion of the children educated in the rural schools spend most of their working life in urban communities, while there is relatively little migration in the opposite direction. Since it is to the great advantage of urban communities that the migrants they receive have as much education as will "take," they should be glad to help the rural communities where the burden is heavy relative to resources.

During the next few years such programs should be strengthened and broadened. While population trends should lessen slightly the need for such help, present efforts have fallen short of equalizing the differentials between rural and urban areas in many States. If State lines are disregarded in this comparison—as they are by a high proportion of rural-urban migrants—large differences are common. To make one comparison of many, the school-age-working-age-population ratio was 56.3 in rural Kentucky in 1930 compared with 31.7 in urban Ohio to which it has sent thousands of migrants. The only way for interstate equalization is through Federal aid. To date this has been confined chiefly to grants from the George-Deen and Smith-Hughes funds. George-Deen funds for courses on distribution go almost entirely to urban schools, which from a population standpoint need Federal aid much less than rural schools. Smith-Hughes money goes chiefly to schools in small towns and rural areas but on too small a scale to do much toward equalizing the large rural excess in the ratio of children to producers. From a population standpoint, therefore, the need is great for much larger Federal grants toward elementary- and high-school education in coming years.

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EDUCATION AND THE RECENT WESTERN MIGRATION

LESTER A. KIRKENDALL

Migratory population movements are as old as mankind, nor are they new in the United States. What is new is the increasingly large number of those leaving their homes in search of a better livelihood and the difficulty they are finding in reëstablishing themselves. Migratory people, recruited from all economic levels and most occupational groups, are found in every State of the Union. The Arizona cotton picker, the cranberry picker in New Jersey bogs, the field worker on the Connecticut tobacco farms, the day laborer in the Oregon plywood mills, the chain-store manager, the roving bridge builder, the temporarily stationed army officer, the school teacher and her superintendent are all a part of the migratory horde.

Migrant movements are not synonymous with roving. Some migrants are rovers, staying at the best a few weeks in one place, while other migrants, like the school teacher, the minister, or the building constructor, live in a community a year—even years—yet, anticipating the time when they will move on, never become a part of it. Of recent years this migratory movement has been accelerated by the effects of drought, unemployment, and depression. Just now booming national defense activities have accelerated the movement of people. From the conscripts concentrated in training camps with their satellite groups, good and bad, to mushroom developments around such centers of defense activity as Hartford, San Diego, and Seattle, the defense program has resulted in further migratory movements. These movements include laborers, clerical workers, scientists, technicians, and professional people.

This discussion will center on the educational problems in California and the Pacific Northwest, where there has been an enormous influx of migrants, most of whom enter the ranks of manual labor. The composition of the migrant group has changed. Formerly most

of the migrant farm laborers in the Pacific Coast States were Chinese, Japanese, Mexicans, and Filipinos. Today the migrants are predominately native white Americans. Many of the families making the westward trek were once small farm owners or tenants from the southern Great Plains region, or substantial farmers and land owners from the northern Great Plains. These people were driven from their homes by the drought of 1934 and succeeding years.

The Farm Security Administration reports a study¹ made in California of 6,655 migrant families. Most of these people came from the States of Oklahoma, Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri. (Migration seems to be along longitudinal lines. The records of the Farm Security Administration at Portland, Oregon, show that over nine tenths of the migrant families coming into Oregon, Washington, and Idaho originate north of the Kansas-Oklahoma border. Oregon and Washington are now beginning to receive people from Oklahoma and Arkansas, who came originally to California.) Many of these families left homes in which they had been long established. Virtually all of them were looking for work and were very reluctant to accept relief. Most of the heads of families were young people in their best working years, their average age being thirty-three years. Other authorities feel that the average migrant family would be found to have two or three children of elementary-school age.

The age composition of these families has important educational implications. First, there are a large number of children of school age needing an education. Second, there are children yet to be born and educated—for the families of migrants are evidently often incomplete. Parents as youthful as the average migrant parents may be expected to bear at least another child.

The migratory movement has reached vast proportions. While estimates vary, the Federal Farm Security Administration states that at least 350,000 families composed of over a million men, women,

¹ *Migrant Farm Labor*, United States Department of Agriculture (Washington, D. C.: Farm Security Administration, 1940).

and children are today wandering from place to place in an attempt to eke out a living.² The California Chamber of Commerce estimates are still higher—1,200,000 migrants in the last ten years.³ More than 850,000 have arrived in the last five years.⁴ In the Pacific Northwest a half-million migrants have arrived since 1930, and they still come at the rate of 120 daily.⁵

Migratory populations have raised a regular welter of educational problems—most of which are unsolved. The problem of rapidly increasing enrollments is the most striking, consequently the most frequently mentioned, result. While the rate of increase varies some communities have had their school populations double within four or five years. One school in Marysville, California, grew from an enrollment of 69 in 1934-1935 to 409 in 1939-1940. Perhaps the banner goes to one school in which the enrollment increased from 70 in September to 325 in March, an increase of 364 per cent.⁶

Special schools for migratory children have been set up in certain districts, but they are usually overcrowded, with inadequate buildings, toilet and drinking facilities, and with poor or no equipment. Playgrounds are poorly drained, muddy, and lacking in shade and play apparatus. One school of 67 pupils had one teacher for all eight grades.⁷

With mounting enrollments, rapidly increasing expenditures for education are necessary. In many instances a local community must bear an unduly heavy burden because the community has become

² *Migrant Farm Labor, op. cit.*

³ *Migrants, A National Problem and Impact on California*, California State Chamber of Commerce (Sacramento, California: The State Chamber of Commerce, 1940).

⁴ Statement summarizing the Report and Recommendations of the Migrant Committee of the California Chamber of Commerce. Presented before the Special House Committee Investigating the Interstate Migration of the Destitute Citizens. Hearings in San Francisco, California, September 24 and 25, 1940.

⁵ John Blanchard, *Caravans to the Northwest* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940).

⁶ Mrs. Jewell Potter, "Teacher and Migrant," *Sierra Educational News*, 34:26, October 1938.

⁷ Mrs. Isabel Pedro, "Teaching the Migratory," *Sierra Educational News*, 36:34-35, March 1938.

the center of a migrant community. In Marysville, California, a crossroads and headquarters for large numbers of migrants, new buildings, new equipment, more teachers, and other school facilities are furnished almost wholly at the expense of the permanent residents. The migrants themselves are unable to furnish any of the necessary financial support through taxation—in fact they are often pressed to supply their children with the necessary clothing and accessories for school. Their level of living is very low, their incomes usually ranging from \$200 to \$450 annually.⁸ No wonder that school facilities for the children of migrant families are not all they might be. Nor is it any wonder that local residents are seeking to convince the representatives of other cities in the State that the problem must be solved on a State-wide basis. Such conditions also provide another argument for Federal equalization of education.

New school legislation, of which only the general outlines are discernible, must necessarily result from the migratory movement. Attendance regulations must be revised and enforced, and provisions made to facilitate the transfer of children from one district to another. The relation of the State to the local district will have to be altered and clarified in many respects. Provisions for financing of larger units on a different basis are probably on the way. The Bankhead-Black Act now permits payments in lieu of taxes to be made to local taxing bodies by migratory labor camps, so that the Federal Government contributes some funds for educational programs provided by the local communities.

From these three factors—shifting and increasing enrollments, mounting educational expenditures, and the need for different legislative provisions—grows the need for comprehensive, long-term planning on a sectional if not national scale. Though much local planning needs to be done, these problems can never be met by single communities. Conferences of school officials, labor officials and representatives, legislators, and others closely associated with

⁸ *Migrant Farm Labor, op. cit.*

the migrant situation for a study of all phases of the problem are needed. Fortunately some of this work is already being done.

The retardation of pupils is another very serious result of migration. Numerous investigations have shown that the school achievement of migratory pupils lags from one to two years behind the children of permanent residents. In a survey of 1,406 school children of Kern County, California, in which 48 per cent of the pupils were classified as migratory, the regularly enrolled pupils ranked from 0.1 grade higher in grade placement in the second grade to 1.3 grades higher in grade eight on reading achievement tests. The difference in the average age of migratory pupils and the regular pupils was obtained in each grade. From the first grade through the eighth the average age of the migratory pupils was higher, ranging from a difference of four months in the first grade to twenty-one months in the fifth grade. After the fifth grade the age difference decreased but the situation became even more serious, for the retarded pupils averaged sixteen months older than those pupils who excelled them.⁹

The intellectual level of migratory children is often suggested as the reason for their retardation. The evidence is conflicting. Beach and Beach¹⁰ tested 70 children coming from transient families and found their average I.Q. to be 103.73. Since the migrant group now includes many people who have once been either completely or semi-independent, and able to make their own way under ordinary circumstances, it is probable that the average intellectual capacity of the migratory children is about the same as that of a stationary group. Over 80 per cent of the Midwestern farm families coming to Oregon, Washington, and Idaho have an eighth-grade education or better.

Probably one of the chief causes for retardation is the scanty and

⁹ D. Theodore Dawes, "Migratory Children," *Sierra Educational News*, 34:121, September 1938.

¹⁰ Allen W. Beach and Walter G. Beach, "Family Migratoriness and Child Behavior," *Sociology and Social Research*, 21:503-523, July-August 1937.

irregular schooling received by so many of the migrant children. Add to this the lack of incentive for study which their type of life induces, the emotional problems resulting from the lack of security, frequent moving, inadequate home life, malnutrition, lack of clothing, lack of community ties, and the quality of schooling received and one probably has the chief causes for school retardation. Sometimes parents or children seize upon a move as an opportunity to secure a grade advancement for a child, particularly for one already retarded. The child coming to school without credentials may tell the teacher that he should have fifth-grade placement rather than fourth. When such placement is denied, however justly, the child often feels that he has been ill-treated.

The alleviation of retardation is another matter. Whether the answer is the establishment of permanent Government camps, with provision of special schools for migrants, or some other plan, some solution must be found if the children of migrant families are to be made a well-educated, integral part of a democratic society.

The effects of migratory life upon the habits, beliefs, standards of value, and attitudes of people have not been clearly charted. Certainly a nomadic existence has an influence upon the behavior patterns of the mobile groups, as compared with those who have an established residence.¹¹ Families living in the same place for a long period of time have an opportunity to build certain associations, to accumulate property, and to reflect community customs and values in their behavior patterns. Denied this stability the migratory individuals or families must work out a set of values and a behavior pattern to fit their mode of living. Beach and Beach¹² studied ninety families, migratory and nonmigratory, to determine which of seventeen different factors were more important to one group of families than the other. The transient families ranked medical care much higher than did the stationary families, and geographical associa-

¹¹ Pitirim Sorokin, *Social Mobility* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1927).

¹² Allen W. Beach and Walter G. Beach, *op. cit.*

tions and relatives somewhat higher. The transient families rated friends and immovable possessions somewhat lower and family associations and real property much lower than did the established families. The transient families rated only five items as having a greater importance than "some importance" while the stationary families rated all seventeen above this level. In other words, the migratory families held considerably less store by the seventeen factors than did the nontransient group. One can only speculate on these findings, but migrancy seems to provide fewer values in living than does permanent residence. Human relationships and possessions are of less importance, while medical care, probably as a means of sustaining life, becomes much more important.

Beach and Beach also studied the attitudes of children of migratory workers and of established families, and found the attitude of the former to be poorer with respect to fellow pupils, teachers, and school. They were less able and less willing to enter into play with others; they show a tendency to follow lines of least resistance, a facility for making acquaintances readily, and resentment and antagonism characterized by an assumption of superiority.

In a dozen ways the migrant situation is made to order for creating resentments. If the migratory children are separated from the children of the regular residents in the schools, then an invidious class system is set up. If the two groups are thrown together, then the teachers and pupils have to deal with groups that are too large, in which shifting of pupils prevents proper instruction and the range of individual differences is enormous. Often the progress of the entire class is slowed up by the retardation of migrant children, or some children are unable to secure an education as the result of pressure on the schools. Such situations create resentments in both parents and children of the regular residents while the migratory children are sometimes resentful because of the unequal task which is set for them.

The policy of educating a group of children of migrant families

wholly at the expense of State or local residents is certain to meet increasing resistance. One may expect to meet with increasing frequency the argument advanced in a recent report of a Special Committee of the New York State Chamber of Commerce on Economical and Efficient Education.¹⁸ This report definitely calls for a curtailment of educational opportunity for certain children, and remarks that "it is a fair question whether the state should bear all the expense or whether parents who are amply able to educate their own youngsters should pay for it.

"In not carrying students too far and in having parents who are able to do so pay the cost of all education beyond illiteracy is found a means of reducing the cost (of education)."

It is only a step from this public pronouncement to the argument that the children of low-income groups should be provided only with enough education to banish illiteracy regardless of the financial status of the parents. This argument has been voiced more than once in private.

Often teachers and administrators must care for urgent physical and psychological needs when the migratory pupil enters school. Often the child needs the simplest and most rudimentary things. When he becomes ragged, dirty, sometimes hungry, weary, uncertain of the future, and psychologically despondent his immediate needs must be met. To learn to wash his hands before meals, to have provided for him nutritious foods (one California school provided a tent kitchen in which the pupils and teacher were permitted to prepare their own lunch), to learn to play with others, and above all to receive sympathy and understanding represent important contributions which teachers can make to these children.

In some schools where children from migrant families are present in numbers large enough, they form groups of their own to afford security and to satisfy the need for belonging since they are not accepted by children of the resident families. The "Oakies" and

¹⁸ See *Social Frontier*, October 15, 1940, p. 4.

"Arkies" band together for their own social activities and to build group unity. Sometimes relations between these groups of migratory children and resident children are amiable; sometimes not. In other schools where perhaps the school authorities have been able to facilitate the process of social absorption the migratory children are assimilated with comparative ease, and no cleavage exists. School authorities testified repeatedly that the children of migrant families did not create discipline problems. On the whole they are found to be amenable, ready to coöperate, and extremely appreciative of the things done for them.

In the high school the major problem is to build a curriculum that will meet the needs of the children and appeal to them. Few, very few, have any hopes of going to college. Their migratory life prevents much reading and any continuous contact with current affairs. Their vocational aspirations are necessarily low. The high schools, therefore, face the important problem of ministering to immediate needs and interests. A functional program built in terms of the peculiar needs of this group is essential if these children are ever to be interested in school.

Another pressing problem is that of social and educational guidance. The need of helping these students to find themselves, to stir incentives where none seem to exist, to adjust them satisfactorily to the social program of the school, and to harmonize the interests and aspirations of children of migratory groups and those of established residents poses some real guidance problems. The problem of providing a functional curriculum to meet the peculiar needs of these pupils raises even greater problems of organizing the program of instruction and securing a faculty personnel capable of putting it into operation.

A great deal of educational work with migrant people is carried on by nonschool and informal agencies. This type of education will probably be expanded since it lends itself much more readily than does formal education to the peculiar conditions of migrant life.

Migrants in Federal Farm Security camps are subject to some supervision relating to health and sanitation. These measures provide a degree of education for those subject to them, especially since the problem is approached as an educational matter. These camps also provide recreational and social activities for old and young. These opportunities help the participants to maintain their social attitudes and interests. In the Federal camps, through coöperative governing organizations, efforts are made to educate the residents concerning the problems of coöperative group activity, so that all may understand the problems of community control. Evening gatherings of various types, forums, religious gatherings, and occasional lectures provide further educational opportunities. Library facilities are also available in some cases.

Certain other public and private agencies have concerned themselves with the problem of educating the migrant family. Among the private agencies the Council of Women for Home Missions has worked to establish health and recreational programs. Other projects have included the formation of mother's clubs for the study of infant care and feeding and clothing a family. They have assisted in providing Sunday school and church services, and have helped in setting up nursery schools and camp schools. In other places community centers have been set up. These agencies carry on among the migrants a regular program of social work with a strong educational emphasis. In many communities local churches, welfare agencies, social workers, and Government agencies carry on health, rehabilitation, and recreational programs which have at the same time educational benefits.

One of the crying educational needs is for some agency to assist in acquainting both the local communities and the nation with the kind of people found in the migrant groups. One of our real needs is to understand the migrant. *Grapes of Wrath* by John Steinbeck has dramatized the plight of a great many of the migrants, but it has also left the impression that all migrants are Joads, culturally

and educationally. This is far from the actual truth. Some families are undoubtedly accurately characterized by the Joads, but many more have reached a much higher level and have much greater potentialities. Many more studies similar to the one of the 6,655 families, mentioned above, are needed. Also specific case histories giving enough information to show the general level of the family are essential. While a single case history cannot be used to characterize an entire group of people with such a range of ability, background, and experience, the following is one which in its general outlines could be duplicated often. This case history¹⁴ shows the path which for one family led to the bean fields of central western Oregon.

James Miller, age 32, his wife, and five-year-old daughter spent the month of August 1940 in the Farm Security Administration mobile camp at West Stayton, Oregon. This camp housed part of the itinerant bean pickers of the vicinity. Mr. Miller was born and reared in eastern Tennessee. After graduation from high school, he went to a barber school. In 1927 he went to western Oklahoma when he found an opening in a local barber shop. By careful and thrifty management he succeeded by 1930 in establishing himself in his own barber shop in the same town. He also married at this time.

As the depression increased in intensity, going became harder, but Mr. Miller held his barber shop until 1937. Then a combination of circumstances—lessened trade, increased competition, accounts not collectible, a mortgage falling due, and increased living expenses (the Miller's daughter was born in 1935)—made it necessary that he give up the shop.

Mr. Miller then opened another barber shop where he remained for a few months. Being unable to make ends meet, he moved again but the second move brought no more success. Thereupon the family decided to try their fortune in California. Arriving there in 1938 they got a job working on a large ranch. Financially they got along fairly well but certain conditions were very unsatisfactory. Much of the time both Mr. and Mrs. Miller worked, especially when "catting" (driving large caterpillar tractors). The work was very difficult for Mrs. Miller, and much of the time

¹⁴ This case history was supplied by Mr. Miller (name fictitious) himself in a conversation with the author, who was visiting the Farm Security Administration camp at West Stayton, Oregon.

their daughter had to be left with such inadequate supervision that it amounted practically to leaving her alone. Moreover the job held no future nor any security.

During the year they planned and looked forward to a job which would permit them to establish a permanent residence with a home of their own and a place in the community as they had once had. Too, their daughter would be ready for school in a few years, so they wanted a place where life could be stabilized and satisfactory educational facilities available.

In the fall of 1939 Mr. Miller found a filling station on one of the main highways in which, after lengthy consideration, they invested the savings made by "catting." Overhead expenses and unexpected replacements of equipment conspired to make this venture a failure and in May 1940, just seven months after taking over the station, they were closed out. After paying off debts the family had their car and \$21 clear.

Most of this money was spent in getting to Nyssa, Oregon, where Mr. and Mrs. Miller secured a job hoeing in the beets. Here they made about \$60 with which they purchased a cheap trailer and thus provided themselves with better living quarters. About July 1 they went to Idaho where they picked berries. Here they made very little, and what they did save was required to purchase two second-hand tires for the trailer and to get them to western Oregon.

Fortunately, they secured work at once. The third week of August, both picking, they made \$4.37. This had been a poor week, for several mornings the beans had been too wet to pick. Then, too, the season was getting fairly well along and the heaviest of the crop had already been picked. They were expecting to move on shortly to hop picking.

In discussing his situation, Mr. Miller seemed optimistic. He had hopes of "getting some breaks" and, if he did, he and his wife together might be able "to make enough to put us on our feet again." The plan they had in mind was to look for some small farm which they might rent and settle in. He felt that there was no longer a chance of making a living at barbering, and he also believed that his skill was badly deteriorated.

When communities understand the migrants well enough to appreciate the excellent qualities and potentialities of a large majority of these people, and are willing to accept and help integrate them into community life, a long step forward will have been taken. To

have two groups of people, the migratory and the stationary groups, living in such close proximity and yet in such widely different worlds is certain to breed dislikes and hatreds, to react to the psychological detriment of both groups, and to produce undemocratic class divisions.

Beyond the problems just discussed are broader issues which must be thought through before sound policies can be set up. Both formal and informal sources of education, schools and universities, forums, radio discussions, and literature should raise these questions, and assist citizens in understanding them.

One of the most important issues relates to the values which should be sought in our social and economic organization. Is our planning to be wholly in terms of economic and productive values, or is it to be built about the concept that sometimes a charge shall be placed against the most economic and efficient method of production to ensure better living conditions, improve family happiness and stability, establish wider educational opportunities, and create community cohesion and unity? Are all of these latter values dependent upon economic enterprise, or does economic well-being depend a great deal upon the extent to which these values are realized? Are our productive potentialities such as to make it possible to maintain a high level of living with respect to material good, and yet hope for these social gains? Unfortunately the war situation is making the answers to these questions much more difficult to reach, while at the same time making their solution more necessary. The Educational Policies Commission in *Education and Economic Well-Being* points to the need for education to promote occupational mobility.¹⁵ Mobility, it is argued, is essential to optimum economic welfare. Yet, when is the optimum degree of mobility from the economic and social point of view reached? How is it ascertained and secured? What type of education will most likely promote this de-

¹⁵ *Education and Economic Well-Being*, Educational Policies Commission (Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1940).

gree of mobility? Such questions are particularly important for educators, policy makers, and influential citizens.

The whole question of planning and social direction is raised. Some people have a nebulous hope that a return of "normal" conditions will solve the problem with no further social effort, forgetting that there has never been a "normal" situation and that the changes of the past decade would prevent any retreat to this "normal" state had it ever existed.

The problem of migrancy is one with which we shall have to deal increasingly. A cessation of war, increasing mechanization of agricultural and industrial activities, improved transportation facilities, and shifting occupational patterns are other factors which will accentuate migration. No longer can communities isolate themselves educationally any more than they can remain aloof from the associations growing out of transportation and communication.

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COMMUNITY HEALTH PROBLEM VITALIZES THE CLASSROOM

G. E. TULLY

Students in the eighth grade of the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School of the University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, recently took an active part in stimulating community interest in a major community problem. Recognition by the students of the problem, the need for the community and the surrounding area to control more effectively communicable diseases, and a plan for doing something about this problem were outgrowths of recent investigations in community problems by this eighth-grade group. A description of this community venture may furnish data as to the relative values that may result from student effort to take part in community affairs. Even though this description of the attempt of a group of students to improve a community does not suggest an original or novel way for accomplishing such an objective, perhaps it tends to indicate that experiences in the school and in the community may be brought together to comprise a significant total learning situation.

In the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, students in grade eight have three hours of a total school day of six and one-half hours given over to learning experiences in the "core curriculum." The core curriculum is that part of the school day during which learning experiences based on social problems believed to be significant for the students take place. Students are expected to assist in planning their experiences in the core, and to work toward the acquisition of certain understandings in subject-matter fields, skills, and attitudes. The use of a variety of material and participation in a wide range of activities are encouraged by instructors in the core curriculum.

General plans for work in the core are formulated by the instructors. Specific units or problems of study are selected by the students, working together with their instructors, from the general plans for each grade. Chosen for study in grade eight was the unit: "How

Man Has Sought to Conquer Diseases." During a planning period that followed the selection of the topic, the investigation was divided into two phases: one a historical survey of man's progress in seeking to control diseases, and the other a study of the progress being made in the local area toward the fight against diseases. Activities designed to aid in the development of these two phases of the study were listed, and materials (such as references, health surveys, governmental pamphlets, films, etc.) that offered promise of value for the study were gathered by the students.

The students compiled the results of their historical survey of man's achievements in the struggle to master disease in a written summary. This summary revealed that man has a sufficient knowledge of nearly all diseases to effect either a complete or partial control. Soon after the beginning of the second phase of the study, the fact was apparent to the students that man has had far more success in acquiring a knowledge of means to control diseases than he has had in making use of this knowledge in fighting diseases among all classes of people. Conditions in the community were in support of this generalization. Tuberculosis, hookworm, syphilis, as well as other communicable diseases, were found to be widespread. The students were amazed and alarmed to find that their county had one of the highest death rates in the State from tuberculosis and syphilis. This finding was increasingly revealing when the students learned that Florida as a State had one of the highest death rates in the country, when compared to other States. In a summary of a survey of health conditions in the county, the students wrote, "The statistics point to the fact that we are considerably behind the times and we have not yet given science a fair chance in the battle."

The health and physical-education instructor had been consulted frequently by the students during this investigation and to this instructor the students turned again in their search for a way to do something about this serious health problem. The health instructor responded by assisting the students to plan and carry out a detailed

study of the health facilities in the county. The students found that a health clinic maintained by a municipality bore most of the burden for controlling diseases. Convinced that such a system was inadequate, and that a plan for county-wide supervision of health was needed, the students sought a way to help remedy this problem.

They talked with the chairman of a committee in the community which advocated a county health unit for the supervision and control of communicable diseases. A course of action for the students to follow in order to "do something" was now apparent. Could they not assist the committee in giving publicity to the need for a county health unit? In answer to this question, the students, working with their instructors, decided to write a play based on a theme showing a need for a county-wide health unit to fight against disease.

A student teacher volunteered to assist the students in producing this play. A number of student committees were formed and each committee assumed a specific task. Plans for publicity for the play and arrangements for stage properties were made by committees. The play, too, was written by a group of students. The work of these committees was coördinated as nearly as possible by the core instructor, the health and physical-education instructor, and the student teacher. These instructors made an effort to assist all of the students in taking an active part in the production of the play.

The one-room house of indigent Florida tenant farmers was chosen as the setting for the first act. This setting was chosen, inasmuch as tenant farmers appear to be the people who suffer under the existing health situation. The student teacher observed that, when the students began to suggest lines for this setting, the influence of motion pictures and "type" stories hampered free expression. Gradually, however, the students shook themselves away from the things they had seen in photoplays and had read in stories, and began to see the stark, real problems caused by frequent sickness that confront the poor family in a rural section.

The play was finally written after about two weeks of endeavor.

In its final form, it was far from an inspiring and polished literary creation. The students had even made use of the old device of the ridiculous villain and his foil. They were proud of the play, however, and justly so. With the use of clever dialogue, the neophyte play writers had dramatized in a fairly realistic manner a situation that could be the lot of any poor family with miserably low economic status. The play was intended to show a need for a county health unit; to the reader of the play this need was revealed with a reasonably effective force that was comparatively free of melodrama.

Copies were made of the two summaries prepared by the class containing the findings of the surveys made by the students. These were distributed to all instructors in the school who were requested to pass them out to the students. Most of the instructors, however, did more than this, and discussed the findings set forth in the summaries with their groups. These materials were given out through the school in an effort to give explanation of the purpose of the play, which was to be given at a regular school assembly.

The play was well received by the student body. Soon after the play was given the first time, an invitation came from another school in the community for the play to be given there. This request was followed by a similar one from a third school. At the conclusion of these visits to schools in the community, approximately one thousand students had seen the play and had heard the findings of the surveys.

Perhaps the chief value resulting from the play was that the students were given an opportunity to make a significant contribution in the drive for making the community a better place in which to live. Other values that perhaps were realized were the development of oral expression as well as certain other skills in the language arts. Also, an opportunity was afforded students and instructors to engage in a coöperative enterprise.

Perhaps no one in the school was as happy about the whole project as were the two instructors and the student teacher. In

schoolwork since this play the students seem to be more sensitive to social values. Some attempt is being made to determine the social beliefs held by the students. Then, too, the class appears to be anxious to take an active part in planning learning experiences within the frame suggested by the instructors. It would not be correct to say that all of these desirable outgrowths were suddenly developed by this participation in community problems. Perhaps the experience made the instructors more sensitive to the potentialities of the group. Although a definite cause-effect relationship at this point is not intended, there is reason to believe that the survey-play project was significant and enriching both to the students and instructors.

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RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in fields of interest kindred to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

RESEARCH PROJECTS OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

*The American Youth Commission, now directed by Floyd W. Reeves, will complete its six-year period on June 30, 1941, but its project for rural youth will continue in operation until June 30, 1942.*¹

This latest major undertaking of the Commission is another effort to implement the findings regarding rural youth by providing consultation, advice, and stimulation to meritorious local enterprises in various communities, and to provide similar services looking toward improved coördination of governmental departments and private agencies at the State level in four States—Michigan, Iowa, Virginia, and Georgia.

The method involves much correspondence, much travel on the part of representatives of the Commission, and many conferences with local leaders and local youth. In localities where the undertaking takes root, it develops into a demonstration of how a superior job can be done by and for the local youth in whatever field may be receiving emphasis, whether it be improved education, guidance, employment opportunities, recreation, health, or a combination of any or all of these. In fact, a point of heavy emphasis is community-wide coöperation among the several agencies engaged in these different functions, as well as among individuals of all ages.

In its numerous earlier studies the Commission used (1) field surveys, (2) testing programs, (3) case studies of individuals, (4) case studies of communities, (5) experiment and demonstration at the community level, (6) correspondence and documentation, and (7) a synchronized program of implementation. Several or all of these methods were used in concur-

¹ This statement is provided through the courtesy of M. M. Chambers, member of staff, American Youth Commission, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

rent combination. For example, all of them were used to some extent in the Commission's studies of adolescent Negroes with special reference to their personality development, in several regions of the United States, including the rural South, a southern urban locality, large northern cities, and localities in border States.

In some of these areas the method was chiefly that of case studies, built up by repeated interviews with the subjects and with their parents and teachers, by interviewers trained in psychology and psychiatry, and familiar with the locale. In other areas this technique was supplemented by a school-testing program and field survey embracing some 2,000 Negro youth, and also by field surveys of local socio-economic conditions. In all the areas the sustained case study was used as the principal means of gaining an insight into the personality development of the individual subjects. Other undertakings of the Commission now in progress include a study of employment and unemployment among young people, carried on with the aid of economists and statisticians; a continuation of the implementation program through various media of communication; and the drafting of a one-volume final report for eventual adoption.

Other projects of the Council related to the care and education of youth. The Commission on Teacher Education, directed by Karl W. Bigelow, is now at the high noon of its six-year period (1938-1943). Its characteristic method is that of stimulating a great variety of experiments and innovations on the part of the institutions of higher education and public-school systems (numbering 34 in all) which have entered into continuing coöperative relations with it. Also, in three States—New York, Michigan, and Georgia—the Commission is sponsoring State-wide undertakings in which all institutions concerned with teacher education participate. It keeps in close touch with all the coöperating agencies through a small central staff of field coöordinators and special consultants. Emphasis is upon the improvement of practices in teacher education through this means, in which the initiative of the coöperating institutions plays a large part, rather than solely through the collection of information by a central national staff. The Commission also has a division on child development and teacher personnel with headquarters at the University of Chicago, and has recently inaugurated on a modest scale an enterprise in the field of college-teacher education.

Two other research projects under the auspices of the Council which use the technique of continuing coöperative relationships with a number

of institutions in different localities are the Cooperative Study of General Education with headquarters at the University of Chicago (embracing 22 colleges), and the Motion Picture Project with headquarters in Washington. The former is a coöperative attack on problems of curriculum, evaluation, student personnel, and administration of the first two years of college. The latter now has in preparation an extensive catalogue which will be entitled *Selected Educational Motion Pictures—A Descriptive Encyclopedia*. This will differ markedly from any previous publication in that area, because it will contain in its descriptive entries the results of local investigation and experimentation to disclose the outcomes of the use of films in influencing children of appropriate ages.

The Cooperative Test Service, with headquarters in New York City, continues to make its unique contribution to American education after ten years of experience. The same office also houses the headquarters of the more recently created National Committee on Teacher Examinations, which is enlisting widespread coöperation among institutions and individuals throughout the country in the construction of tests suitable for measuring certain qualities of prospective candidates for the teaching profession and in the development of policies regarding possible uses of such instruments.

Under the auspices of the Council there is also a project in rural social studies, now engaged in a survey of present facilities for the training of personnel for work in that area.

The Committee on Modern Languages continues to be active, conducting its development of semantic frequency lists and continuing its word-count studies. Another enterprise of the same committee is an investigation of the teaching of English to Spanish-speaking children. The study is being made in Puerto Rico, and its results will no doubt be applicable in the southwestern States as well as throughout Latin America.

The foregoing is not a complete picture of all the research activities now in progress under the auspices of the Council. A more complete description may be had in the bulletin *History and Activities of the American Council on Education* which is revised and reissued annually in November.

There are more than twenty active committees and subcommittees in addition to those just mentioned. The flow of publications, recent and prospective, is large. The next annual meeting of the Council will be held in the Mayflower Hotel, Washington, D. C., May 2 and 3, 1941.

BOOK REVIEWS

Matching Youth and Jobs, by HOWARD M. BELL. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940, xiii + 277 pages.

The American Youth Commission recently conducted a joint project with the Employment Service Division of the Social Security Board, for the purpose of studying and stimulating the coördination of all local agencies having a hand in vocational education, guidance, and placement for youth, in eight selected localities, four of which were large urban centers and four of which were rural counties. Out of the varied studies and experimental efforts which were initiated during the eighteen-month life of the project comes this report by Mr. Bell, who acted as coördinator representing the Commission.

In his usual manner of going directly to the point in plain and vigorous language (already familiar to readers of his earlier report of the survey of youth in Maryland entitled *Youth Tell Their Story*),¹ Mr. Bell has built the book around the concept that the key to community success in finding the right jobs for youth is in the conduct of continuing local research which amounts to knowing the community, knowing the jobs, and knowing the workers. Knowing the community includes the effect of past and prospective population changes and of shifting occupational patterns. Needless to say, these sorts of information must also be collected and interpreted on State-wide and national bases as well as locally. Both vertical and horizontal coöperation among the agencies concerned is essential. This is the main theme of the report.

Just what a community occupational adjustment program involves and just how it can be set in motion and made to produce significant returns are matters of especial importance when national defense industries require maximum efficiency in production. All of us have a stake in improving youth's opportunities and the nation's economic welfare.

¹ Washington: American Council on Education, 1938, 273 pp., \$2.00 cloth, \$1.50 paper. Among other early publications of the American Youth Commission are *The Health of College Students*, by Drs. Harold S. Diehl and Charles E. Shepard, 169 pp., \$1.50; *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, by Harl R. Douglass, 137 pp., \$1.00; *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth*, by Newton Edwards, 189 pp., \$2.00; *How Far American Youth?*, by Homer P. Rainey and others, 186 pp., \$1.50; *Youth in European Labor Camps*, by Kenneth Holland, 303 pp., \$2.50. Among prospective publications of the Commission are *Youth Work Programs—Problems and Policies*, by Lewis L. Lorwin; *Time on Their Hands—A Report on Leisure, Recreation and Young People*, by C. Gilbert Wrenn and D. L. Harley; and *Youth-Serving Organizations—National Non-Governmental Associations*, by M. M. Chambers.

Growing Up in the Black Belt, by CHARLES S. JOHNSON. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941, xxiii + 360 pages.

Negro youth in the rural South have here found an interpreter. In rapid succession we see the personality profiles of the plantation boy, the girl in the sharecropper family, the son of the farmhand, the migratory youth, the mulatto boy, and the young married couple. Then we look successively at status and security in the social world of youth. Here we get insights characteristic of the distinguished author of this book, who has won eminence in his field as head of the department of sociology at Fisk University for thirteen years. We see Negro youth in school, in the church, and at play. We get glimpses of their occupational outlook and incentives, of their attitudes toward sex and marriage, and of their relations with white people. Intrarace attitudes are also significant. Within the Negro society the color of one's skin has a large influence upon his status.

The book is the result of one phase of the comprehensive study of Negro youth recently completed under the auspices of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education.¹ To discover the response of rural southern colored adolescents to the conditions of their environment, and to find out how economic and other handicaps affect their personality development, investigations were carried on in eight counties representing the major types of southern agricultural life. The findings have important implications for education, for social work, and for many phases of social planning. Fortunately the methods used in the study and the skill of the man who directed it and wrote the report make it of absorbing interest to the layman as well as to the specialist.

Guideposts for Rural Youth, by E. L. KIRKPATRICK. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940, viii + 167 pages.

Here is a concise description of practical steps which have been taken in many communities to improve the situation and outlook of the young

¹The following books were published by the American Council on Education in 1940 as part of a series of studies of Negro youth problems: *In a Minor Key*, by Ira DeA. Reid, 135 pp., \$1.25; *Children of Bondage*, by Allison Davis and John Dollard, 327 pp., \$2.25; *Negro Youth at the Crossways*, by E. Franklin Frazier, 350 pp., \$2.25. This series will be completed by the publication in April 1941 by the American Council on Education of *Color and Human Nature*, by W. Lloyd Warner, Buford H. Junker, and Walter A. Adams; and *Color, Class, and Personality*, by Robert L. Sutherland, director of the study.

people of farm and village. In succession we see what has been done in some places and what can be done in others about finding jobs for youth, enabling them to get vocational education, and upgrading general education. Creating wholesome leisure-time opportunities, enlivening the rural church, raising the level of public health, and fostering the establishment of homes by rural young men and women also are viewed. Finally, we look at progress in unique organizations for older rural young people, and see what part the youth can play in a well-balanced community program which envisions the welfare of people of all ages, not of youth alone.

Among the keynotes of future progress are local surveys to find the facts, maximum use of local resources, and constant emphasis on community-wide coöperation and youth participation.

The author has had long connection with the American Country Life Association, and for three years has studied the welfare of rural youth as a staff member of the American Youth Commission. He knows rural youth and rural communities, and has given the Commission a staff report which speaks in a language understood by Americans who live close to the realities of agricultural communities in all sections of the country.

Modern Marriage, by PAUL POPENOE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940, xi + 299 pages.

Paul Popenoe has been collecting data concerning the factors producing success or failure in marriage for many years. His interpretation of these data in this revised handbook gives it a statistical and scientific flavor not commonly found in books on the subject. Problems involving suitable ages for marriage, selection of a mate, parental attitude, romance, love, divorces, proposals, engagements, weddings, premarital examinations, heredity, and children are discussed in a sane, unemotional, and well-documented manner. Placed in the hands of the more intelligent young people it should alleviate much "mental misery" and reduce the number of unsatisfactory marriages.

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